

Calibrating the FNAL Booster Ionization Profile Monitor

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Abstract

We have performed a calibration of the Booster Ionization Profile Monitor (IPM) using a set of independent measurements of the beam width and a new model of the ion dynamics in the detector. The independent measurements were obtained both at injection, using a single wire, and at extraction, using a multiwire proportional chamber in the extraction line (MI8). In order to obtain single-turn resolution during the injection measurements we utilized a new technique, where the beam width is measured using a stationary wire at the location of the injection bump magnet (ORBUMP), which the beam traverses when it moves from the injection to the nominal trajectory. The wire and chamber measurements were compared to IPM measurements taken at the same time, and the results of the comparison were used to constrain the model of the ion dynamics in the detector. Our calibration results in the formula

$$\sigma_{measured} = \sigma_{real} + C_1 N \sigma_{real}^{p_1},$$

where N is the number of protons in the machine, in units of 10^{12} , $C_1 = (1.13 \pm 0.06) \times 10^{-5} \text{m}^{1-p_1} / 10^{12}$, and $p_1 = 0.615 \pm 0.013$; the subscript “measured” indicates the raw (uncorrected) IPM measurement, the subscript “real” the true beam width.

1 Introduction

The Fermilab Booster is a rapid cycling, 15 Hz, alternating-gradient synchrotron with radius of 75.47 m, that accelerates protons from 400 MeV kinetic energy to 8 GeV[1]. Multi-turn H^- injection is used; typically ten turns of Linac beam are injected. During injection, a pulsed orbit bump magnet (ORBUMP) is used to superimpose the trajectories of circulating and injected beam.

The Booster Ionization Profile Monitor (IPM) is the only device in the Booster capable of measuring beam profiles with a time resolution of one turn (2.2 micro seconds at injection). The IPM measures profiles using ions produced by the interaction of the beam with the imperfect vacuum of the machine. An applied transverse clearing field of 8 kV causes the ions to drift to a micro-channel plate (MCP). The beam direction defines the longitudinal coordinate. The detector is 0.5 m long, with a transverse gap of 12 cm. The MCP plate is $8 \times 10 \text{ cm}^2$ and has strip spacing 1.5 mm [3] and [2]. The response of the IPM depends on the charge of the beam, so its response has to be calibrated as a function of the injected number of protons.

2 Theoretical Calculation

Our objective is to measure the projection of the beam distribution on each one of the transverse coordinates. For an ideal measurement of one projection, the ions’ drift should be parallel to the other (non-measured) coordinate. For this purpose, the IPM provides an external field which is applied on the beam along the non-measured coordinate. On the other hand, the field due to the beam itself is not transverse, so it distorts the behavior from the ideal. Figure 1 displays sample trajectories of ions in the IPM with and without the presence of the beam-induced field. The simulation used

to calculate the trajectories is described in Section 3. In the following we will calculate the distortion created by the beam's self-field.

We start by considering the scattering of particles of a beam with a gaussian transverse profile caused by the field generated by the beam itself as well as an applied electric field. The total force felt by an ion in the combined field is

$$\vec{F} = \hat{r} \frac{a}{r} (1 - \exp(-r^2/2\sigma^2)) + b\hat{x} \quad (1)$$

Here σ is the total transverse RMS width of the beam distribution. The coefficient a is proportional to N , the number of protons in the Booster, which we will typically measure in units of 10^{12} . The external field is perpendicular to the coordinate in which we are measuring the beam profile. The longitudinal coordinate (z) is the beam direction. We ignore the curvature of the beam in the longitudinal direction since the size of the detector is small compared to the circumference of the ring.

It is instructive to compare the relative magnitudes of the applied field and the field due to the beam. A typical beam at extraction might have $\sigma = 2.0$ mm and $N = 2.5 \times 10^{12}$. Then

$$\frac{\frac{a}{r_{max}} (1 - \exp(-r_{max}^2/2\sigma^2))}{b} \simeq \frac{1}{24},$$

where r_{max} is the distance from the center of the beam at which the field due to the beam is maximum. The small value of this ratio suggests that it makes sense to start by ignoring the field due to the beam, then reintroduce it as a perturbation.

It is possible to analytically calculate the average absolute deflection in the y coordinate due to the scattering by the above force to leading order in the small parameter a , or, equivalently, the current N . The result is

$$\langle y_{out} \rangle = \langle y_{in} \rangle + KN\sigma_{real}^{-1/2},$$

where y_{in} is the initial y -coordinate of the ion and y_{out} is the y -coordinate of its arrival at the MCP. In the absence of beam self-field effects, the above equation reduces to $y_{in} = y_{out}$, i.e., there is no distortion in the profile measurement.

The constant K is a complicated integral involving the forces and distributions in the problem, but independent of the parameters σ_{real} and N . We assert without proof that the scaling behavior above is insensitive to the detailed shape of the beam distribution. Different beam shapes can only modify the size of K . The value of K also depends on the details of the IPM such as the distribution of ions, distance to the wall, etc. We will include details and a calculation of the variance of y in a full paper.

3 Simulations and Phenomenology

We have written a two-dimensional simulation of the physics of the preceding section using Octave[4]. In the simulation we distribute particles in the $x - y$ plane according to an x/y -symmetric gaussian distribution of width σ_{real} . We then calculate the individual particle trajectories using the force given in Equation (1). Finally, we calculate the y -location of the intercept of each particle trajectory with the MCP and form a histogram of the intercepts. Figure 1 shows some typical trajectories obtained from our simulation. In the actual Booster IPM, the width of the distribution is determined from a fit to a gaussian plus a linear background. We followed the same procedure in the simulation, even though the background in the input distribution is zero. We included a possible background term in the fit function in order to best match the fitting procedure used in the actual IPM. The resulting fitted width, $\sigma_{smeared}$, is our estimate of the $\sigma_{measured}$ observed in the actual IPM.

The parameters of the simulation include the geometry of the IPM, the strength of the clearing field, and the beam width and current. These parameters are all well determined. One additional parameter is needed: the mass of the ions themselves. We take the mass to be the mass of a water molecule. In the actual beam pipe a distribution of ions of different species is present. We expect the mass of the ions to affect the overall size of the smearing due to the beam current, but not the scaling with beam size itself.

Our simulation is similar to the simulation described in W. Graves's thesis[3], the first use of the Booster IPM for emittance measurements. Since the computer power available to us nine years later than Graves's original work is substantially greater, we have been able to extend our simulations of a larger range of parameter space and to work to higher accuracy. In Figure 2 we show the results of our simulation, as well as the results of Graves's earlier work. Our new simulation closely matches the original simulation in the region of overlap.

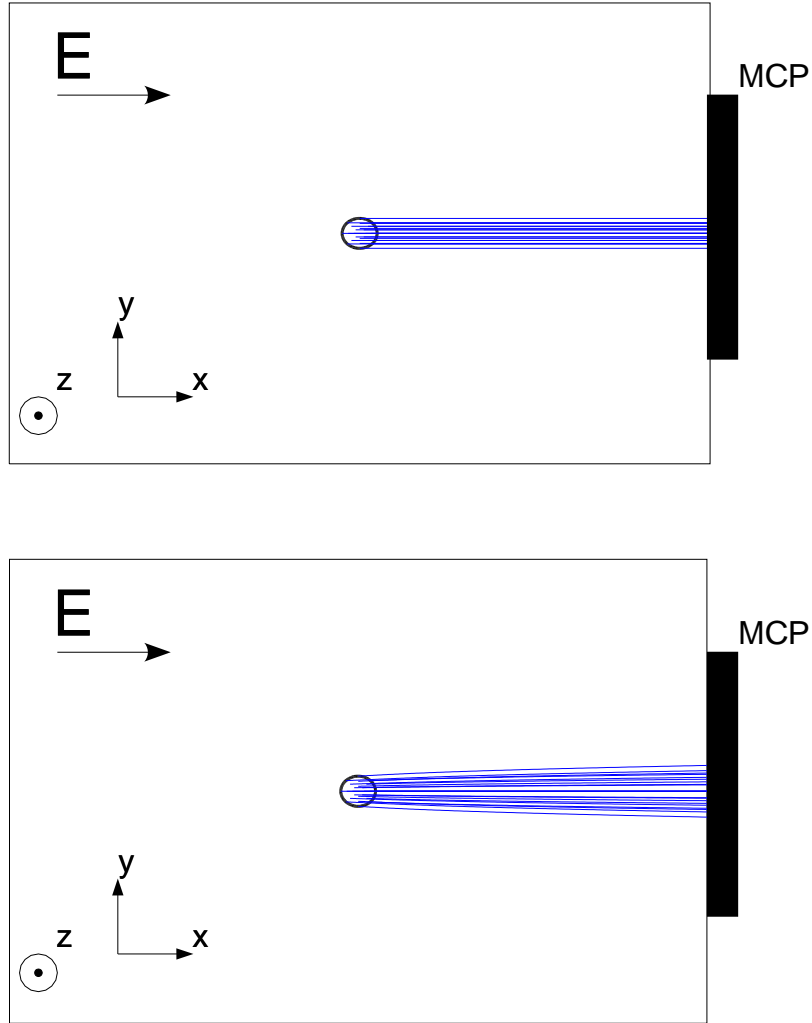


Figure 1: Simulated ion trajectories in the IPM. Ions are created by the beam (traveling in the $+z$ direction) in the center, then drift toward the MCP. The upper diagram is the idealized case where the field due to the beam is negligible. The lower diagram shows the distortion of the trajectories for a realistic beam parameters.

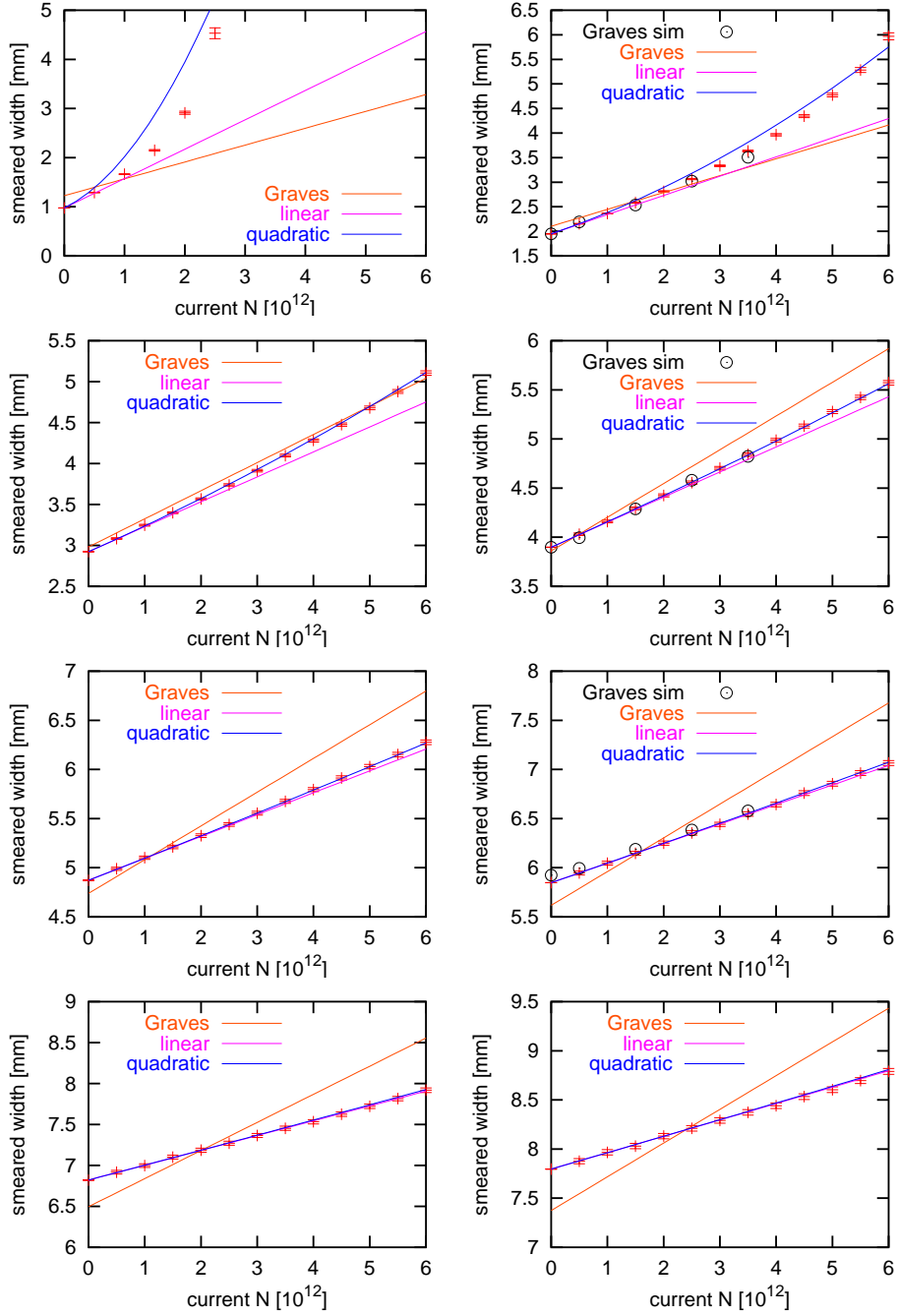


Figure 2: Simulations and parameterizations. The crosses are the results of our Octave simulation, including error bars. The circles are the results of the simulation in Graves's thesis, for which no error bars are available. The smeared width is the width that would be observed in the IPM under the assumptions of our model, and it is plotted versus the beam current, in units of 10^{12} protons per turn. Each one of the plots corresponds to a different initial value of σ_{real} , the value which corresponds to 0 current. The functional form used to parameterize the response of the IPM is described in the text.

Parameter	Fitted Value	Uncertainty	Units
C_1	8.44×10^{-6}	0.61×10^{-6}	$\text{m}^{1-p_1}/10^{12}$
p_1	-0.615	0.013	none
C_2	1.8×10^{-14}	1.3×10^{-14}	$\text{m}^{1-p_2}/10^{24}$
p_2	-3.45	0.12	none

Table 1: Results from fits to our simulation for linear and quadratic parameterizations.

In reference [3], the following formula is used to parameterize the results of his simulations

$$\sigma_{real} = \tilde{C}_1 + \tilde{C}_2 \sigma_{measured} + \tilde{C}_3 N.$$

This formula is currently implemented in the Booster IPM data collection system [2] to estimate the true beam width from the measured distribution. The simplest physical observation we can make about the scaling of measured versus real beam widths is that

$$\sigma_{real} \rightarrow \sigma_{measured} \text{ as } N \rightarrow 0.$$

Unfortunately, the simple parameterization above does not have this property. Inspired by the theoretical result of the previous section, we try the parameterization

$$\sigma_{measured} = \sigma_{real} + C_1 N \sigma_{real}^{p_1},$$

which we refer to as the linear (in N) parameterization. Postulating the form of the next term in the expansion, we also consider the quadratic form

$$\sigma_{measured} = \sigma_{real} + C_1 N \sigma_{real}^{p_1} + C_2 N^2 \sigma_{real}^{p_2}.$$

Validating the linear and quadratic parameterizations is complicated by the fact that there are two independent variables, σ_{real} and N . We tested these parameterizations by performing two stages of fitting to the results of the simulation. First, we fit a parabola to the quantity $\sigma_{measured} - \sigma_{real}$, where $\sigma_{measured}$ is the smeared σ predicted by the simulation, for each fixed σ_{real} using N as the independent variable. Next, we plot the coefficients of the parabolic fit as a function of σ_{real} . If the linear and quadratic parameterizations describe the simulation well, the coefficients of the first parabolic fits should be described by power laws. The plots of the coefficients, along with power-law fits, are shown in Figure 3. The fitted parameters are shown in Table 1. Returning to Figure 2, we see that the power-law fit with the linear term alone is sufficient for most of the parameter space we explored. It is only in region where σ_{real} becomes small and N becomes large that the quadratic term in the power-law fit becomes important. Even with the quadratic term, beam sizes around 1 mm are not well described by our parameterizations, linear or quadratic. Fortunately, beams as small as 1 mm are never observed in the Booster under normal operating conditions.

The extracted value $p_1 = -0.615 \pm 0.013$ is similar to, but not exactly the same as, the value $-\frac{1}{2}$ obtained in the calculation of Section 2. In the calculation, however, we estimated the overall linear spread in the measured y , $\langle y_{out} \rangle$. In the simulation, however, we extracted widths by fitting to a gaussian with a linear background, as described above. We expect the behavior of $\langle y_{out} \rangle$ to be similar to, but not exactly the same as the width obtained from the fitting procedure. The small difference in the powers is therefore not unexpected.

4 Measurements

In order to perform an experimental measure of the IPM calibration, we took width measurements simultaneously with the Booster IPM, the MI-8 extraction line wire chamber and the so-called ‘‘Flying Beam’’ wire[5]. The ‘‘Flying Beam’’ wire is a single wire measuring device at the Booster Long 1 section, which can be parked just outside the beam envelope of the *injected* beam, i.e beam envelope with the ORBUMP magnets on. At injection, the ORBUMP magnets keep the beam trajectory displaced by ~ 4 cm with respect to the nominal beam orbit, so that the injected H^- ions will pass through a stripping foil. The wire is placed between the displaced and nominal orbits. As the ORBUMP

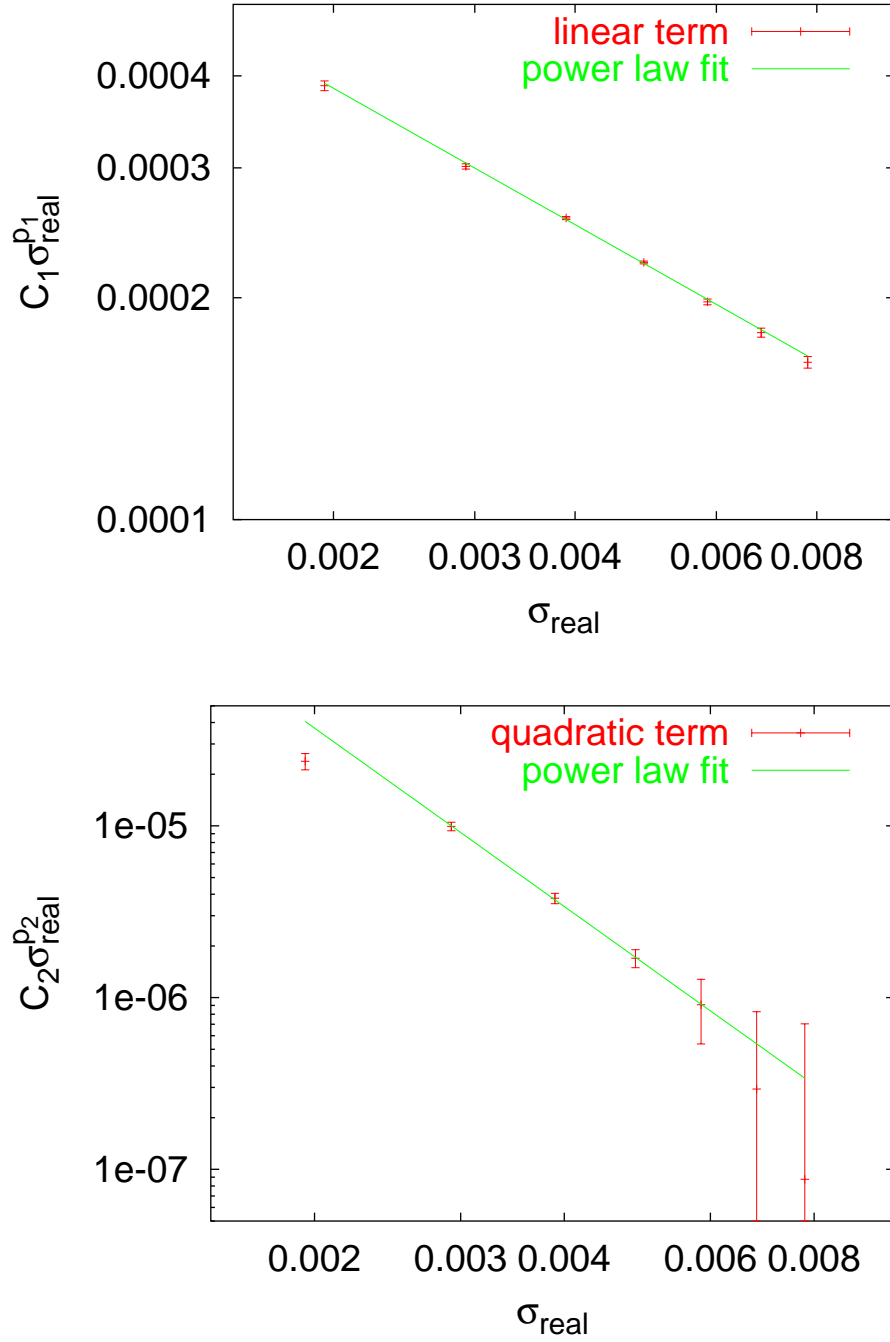


Figure 3: Power-law fits to parabolic coefficients as described in the text. The smallest value of σ_{real} was left out of the quadratic term fit to avoid contamination from higher-order terms in the series.

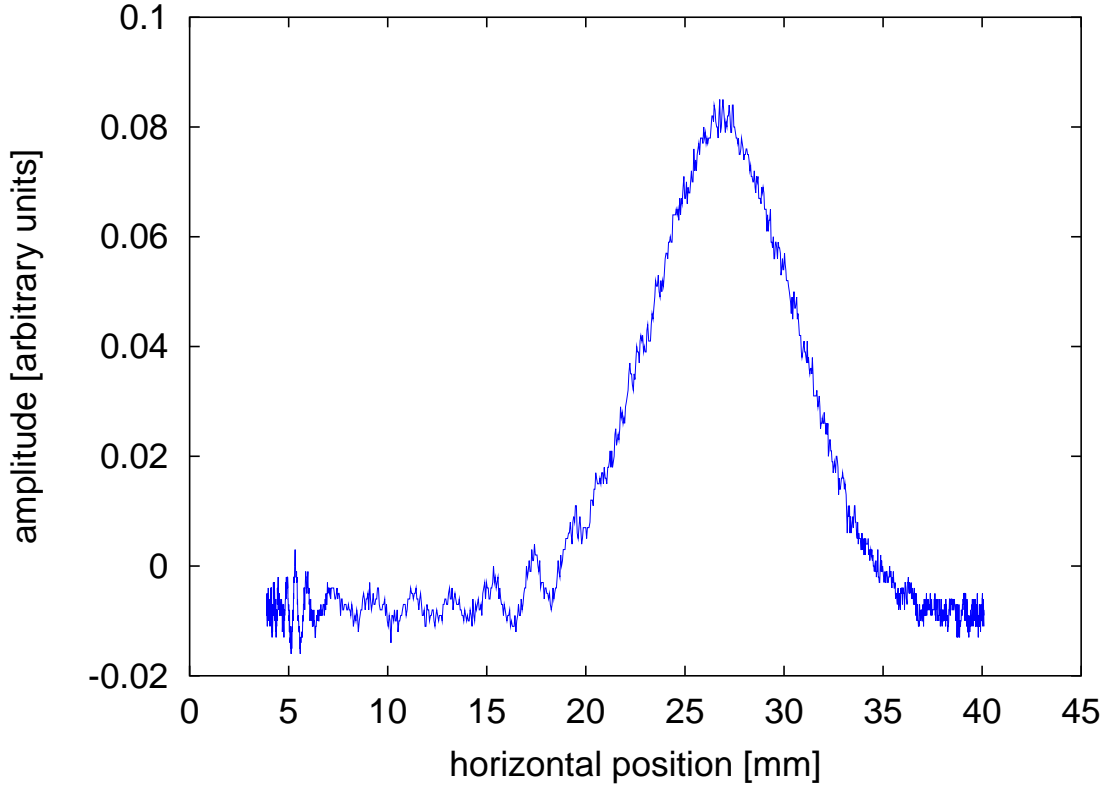


Figure 4: Typical horizontal beam profile measured with the “Flying Beam” wire.

current decays, the beam sweeps through the wire, providing a measure of the horizontal beam profile. By recording the ORBUMP current as a function of time, $I(t)$, and the response of the wire as a function of time, $a(t)$, we can reconstruct the horizontal profile, $a(x)$, as measured by the wire by using the known beam position as a function of current, $x(I)$. See Figure 4 for a display of a typical beam profile as measured by the “Flying Beam” wire.

The turn number for which we extract the profile is controlled the timing of the injected beam with respect to the ORBUMP current pulse. Therefore the range of turns for which we can extract beam profiles with this technique is limited by the length of the ORBUMP pulse, which amounts to roughly 30 turns. There is a drawback in this method: we can only measure one profile during a given Booster cycle. If we want to measure widths of different turn numbers, we are only able to do so during different Booster cycles. Also, since the ORBUMP affects only the horizontal plane, we can only calibrate the horizontal IPM detector. The vertical detector can only be calibrated after a temporary rotation to the horizontal plane.

After injection into the booster, the transverse size of the beam decreases during acceleration. Since the “Flying Beam” wire measures beam widths during the first few turns and the MI-8 chamber measures the beam width after extraction, we were able to see the extremes of the range of beam sizes available. We varied the beam intensity between 1 and 13 injected turns in order to explore a wide variety of intensities. For the analysis presented here we used data sets collected on November 11, 2002 and December 10, 2002.

In order to compare the data from the three different positions in the accelerator complex, each with (potentially) different β -functions we scaled the widths obtained from the wire and chamber to the IPM by multiplying by $\sqrt{\beta_{IPM}/\beta_{wire}} \approx 0.93$ ($\beta_{IPM} = 5.73\text{ m}$ and $\beta_{wire} = 6.63\text{ m}$ at injection, from Reference [6]) and $\sqrt{\beta_{IPM}/\beta_{chamber}} \approx 0.82$, respectively ($\beta_{chamber} = 17.97\text{ m}$, at extraction, from Reference [7]). The raw data are summarized in Tables 2 and 3. Also, since the time resolution of the “Flying Beam wire” is a few turns, we average the IPM measured beam profiles from five consecutive turns to compare with the wire. An example of horizontal beam profiles as measured by the IPM for three different beam intensities are shown in Figure 5.

In comparing our experimental results with the simulations, we found that all of the data fell in the regime in

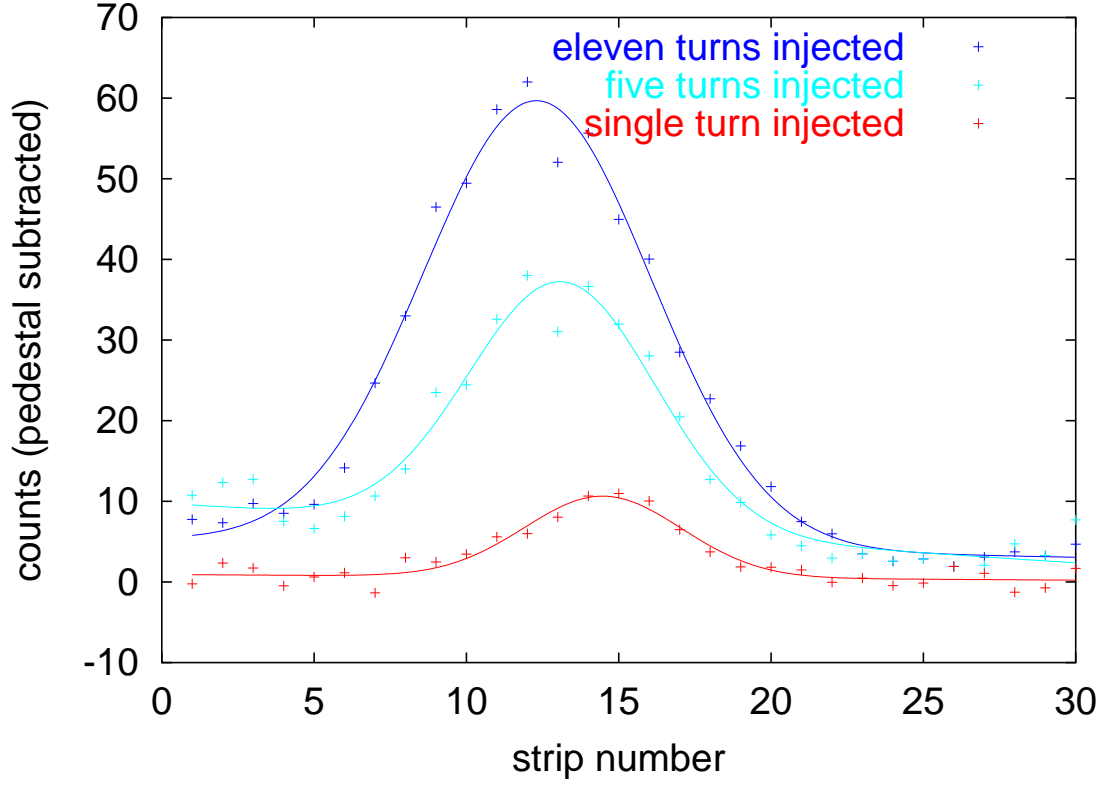


Figure 5: IPM measured horizontal beam profiles for a beam charge of one (red), five (cyan), and eleven (blue) injected turns in the machine. The corresponding lines are a fit to the data using a gaussian plus a first degree polynomial function.

time	wire width	wire error	IPM width	IPM error	Current [10^{12}]	No. IPM points
1384	3.7570	0.0072	6.406	0.118	5.030	15
1395	3.8778	0.0042	6.532	0.096	6.450	10
1371	3.2375	0.1064	4.288	0.106	0.981	43
1371	3.8882	0.0017	4.393	0.024	1.258	17
1418	3.8305	0.0035	5.053	0.099	2.085	17
1418	3.7846	0.0053	5.273	0.060	3.158	11
1400	3.8057	0.0015	4.868	0.046	3.295	11
1400	3.9399	0.0045	5.158	0.055	4.425	12
1380	4.0525	0.0012	5.445	0.103	3.439	7
1380	3.1100	0.0928	4.552	0.291	0.550	20

Table 2: Wire (“Flying Beam”) data.

chamber width	chamber error	IPM width	IPM error	Current [10^{12}]	No. IPM points
3.300	0.050	4.906	0.100	4.200	35
2.045	0.081	2.604	0.047	0.800	43
2.168	0.041	2.995	0.065	1.562	17
2.250	0.041	3.327	0.039	2.341	11
2.370	0.041	3.744	0.035	3.135	12
2.618	0.041	4.276	0.037	4.053	7

Table 3: MI-8 chamber data.

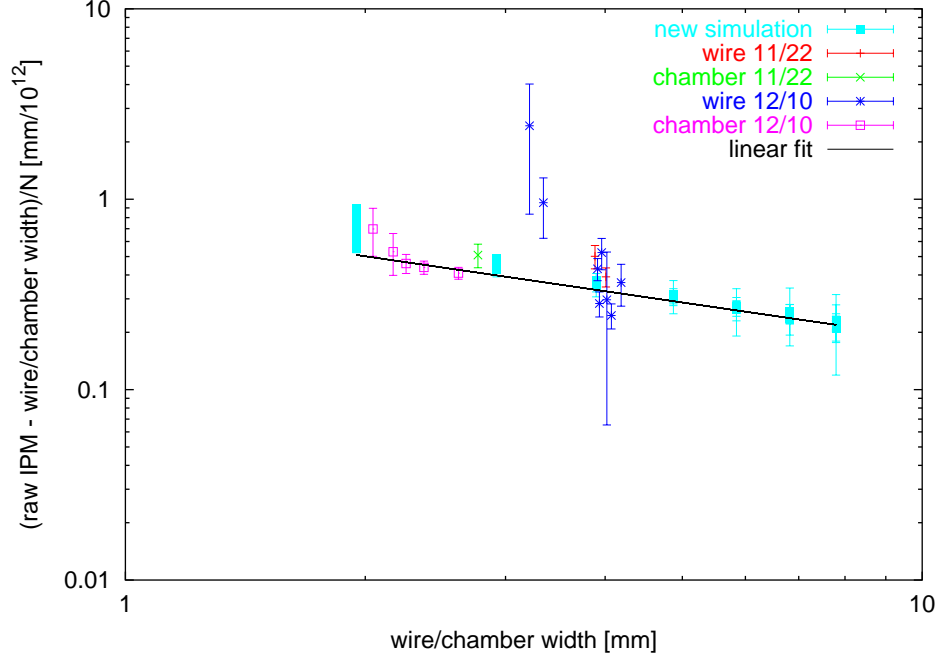


Figure 6: Comparison of our linear parameterization with the data and simulation. The linear parameterization predicts a linear relationship between the quantities plotted. The simulation has been normalized to match the data.

which the linear and quadratic power-law fits were indistinguishable. As a simple test of the power-law scaling seen in the simulation, we plot the quantity $(\sigma_{measured} - \sigma_{real})/N$ as a function of σ_{real} for all of the data and simulation points. We take σ_{real} to be the width obtained from the wire or chamber and $\sigma_{measured}$ to be the raw (uncorrected) width obtained from the IPM. The simulation points for a given value of σ_{real} will fall on top of each other only to the degree that the linear power-law fit is sufficient to describe the simulation. Because we argued that the constant C_1 depends on the details of the beam and IPM, we let it float in order to find the best fit to the data. We did not vary the parameter p_1 . The value of C_1 we get from the fit to the data, $(1.13 \pm 0.06) \times 10^{-5} \text{m}^{1-p_1} / 10^{12}$, is approximately one third larger than the value we obtained from the simulation (see table 1), which is reasonable given the simple assumptions present in the model. Figure 6 shows the scaling behavior of the simulation is quite consistent with the data. Since we have not identified all the sources of systematic errors in the wire measurements we estimate their size from the scatter of the points of Table 2 and Table 3. This results to a total error which is approximately three times the size of the statistical error; the total error is shown in Figure 6.

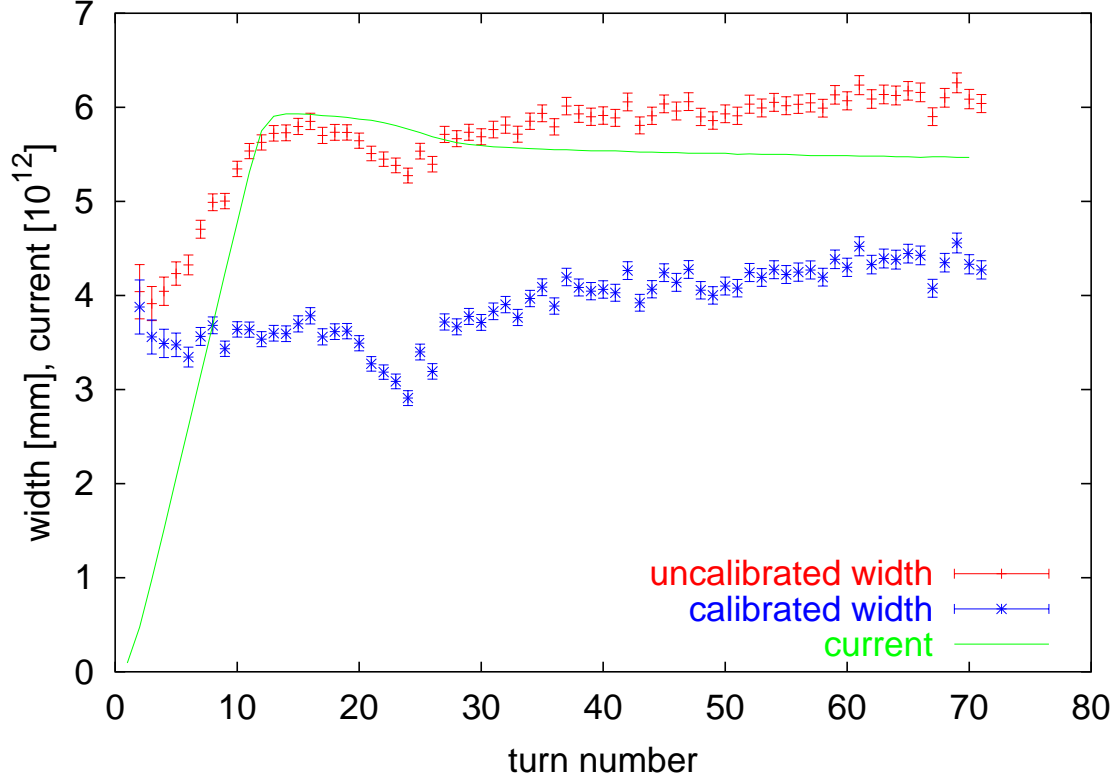


Figure 7: Horizontal beam width in the Booster, measured by the IPM as a function of time, measured in Booster turns (2.2 micro seconds), at injection. Both the calibrated (blue) and uncalibrated (red) widths are shown. Also shown (green curve) is the beam current in the machine, in units of 10^{12} protons/turn, versus time.

5 Summary and conclusions

We have obtained a calibration for the FNAL Booster horizontal IPM detector, using a new device, the “Flying Beam” wire, at injection, and a MWPC at extraction. The data from these devices were compared to IPM measurements for different injected currents in the machine, and the IPM response was fit to a function determined by a two-dimensional electrodynamics model of the detector. We have found that the relation between the raw beam width seen in the IPM and the true width is well described by the function

$$\sigma_{measured} = \sigma_{real} + C_1 N \sigma_{real}^{p_1},$$

where N is the current in units of 10^{12} protons in the machine, $C_1 = (1.13 \pm 0.06) \times 10^{-5} \text{m}^{1-p_1}/10^{12}$, and $p_1 = 0.615 \pm 0.013$. The range of validity in (σ_{real}, N) , can be extended by adding a term quadratic in N , but we do not find it necessary in order to reproduce our data.

The importance of the calibration for the Booster IPM detector and the size of the beam self-field induced effects is demonstrated in figure 7, where both the calibrated and uncalibrated IPM beam profiles are shown, together with the beam current, as a function of time. The effect is most dramatic during the first eleven turns in the machine (injection time), since the beam current is changing. The change of the uncalibrated beam width clearly tracks the beam current change. The calibrated width shows a much smaller variation during the injection period.

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